

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW

The official organ of the Comparative Education Society

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EDITORIAL

This issue marks the conclusion of the second year of publication of COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW. Its back cover carries author and subject index of articles published to date. It is suggested, especially to libraries, that these first six copies of the REVIEW be bound in one volume. Those who were not subscribers from the beginning and who were unable to obtain Number 1 of Volume 1 (June 1957), now out of print, may complete their set by ordering a photostatic copy from the office of the Editor. The cost per copy will be determined by the number of orders received.

Events of great interest and importance to comparative educators have occurred since the last issue was published. First is the movement of the Soviet educational system in the vocational direction, described by Mr. Boiter in this issue. Second is the appearance of a government White Paper in London signalling the review of the traditional emphasis of the English schools. The discussion of this document will be published in the June number. Third is the new French law raising the school age and reorganising the lower cycle of secondary education. Fourth is Italy's ten-year education plan assigning two billion dollars for school buildings, scholarships, and teacher salaries. Copies of the plan can be obtained from the Italian Embassy in Washington.

In this issue Mr. Wodajo's and Mr. Jolly's papers are area studies. Three articles are comparative. Mr. Chauncey's comparison is by means of a schematic table. His work is interesting methodologically and refers, of course, to the American and Soviet systems as the author now sees them, prior to the full effect of the changes that both are now undergoing. Dr. Scanlon's and Dr. Miller's comparisons are qualitative. Finally Dr. Lilge's review discusses the latest com-

parative textbook in relation to the theory of comparative education.

From the much increased volume of comparative writings, specialist and nonspecialist, one can select for mention only the following: *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, a promising new journal, edited in Chicago by Sylvia Thrupp, the first issue of which contains comparative articles on state and religion, and two papers on Chinese intellectuals. Two symposia by the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, 1958: *Facilities for Education in Rural Areas* and *Preparation and Issuing of the Primary School Curriculum*, in addition to the record of proceedings of the annual international conference. P. S. Du Toit, *Aspects of Teacher Education in the USA, Canada and South Africa*, Carnegie Corporation, 1956. W. W. Brickman, "Rickover as a Comparative Educator," *Pbi Delta Kappan*, November 1958; this issue contains also the reprint of H. G. Rickover's comparison of American with Western European Schools (also published in *Vital Speeches*, September 1, 1958), and A. H. Moehlman's comparison of American with Soviet schools. An unsigned article, "A New Center in Comparative Education," *The School Review* (Chicago), Autumn 1958; also in this issue are four articles on educational research in the Soviet Union, Germany, French-speaking countries, and Israel. Gordon C. Lee, "Stresses and Strains in Church-State School Relationships in England and America: A Comparative View," *Researches and Studies*, University of Leeds Institute of Education, July 1958. Walter James, "Western Ways to the University," *Progress*, Unilever, Winter 1957-58. B. Holmes, "Comparative Education and the Administrator," *Journal of Higher Education*, May 1958. R. J. Havighurst, "Education, Social Mobility and

Social Change in Four Societies; a Comparative Study," *International Review of Education*, vol. 4, no. 2, 1958; also in this issue, and in numbers 1 and 3 of this volume, are several useful area studies on Poland, France, England, Australia, Germany, and Italy. J. A. Lauwerys, "Comparative Education; Notes on Articles," *National Elementary School Principal*, October and December, 1958, written as a preface to area articles on Britain, Egypt, and India. W. R. Gaede, "Eindrücke vom amerikanischen und vom deutschen Bildungswesen," *Die Deutsche Schule* (Hanover), November 1957.

Dr. Kathryn Heath's article, "Is Comparative Education a Discipline?," published in the October 1958 issue of *COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW*, has provoked the following comments:

My scoring gives comparative education only 30 out of a possible 100 on the ten criteria Dr. Heath advances for an academic discipline. I scored items 2, 6, and 10 positively and although the other seven items are not wholly negative in all cases, I feel a positive answer now would be controversial.

Comparative education is, of course, a very young "discipline" and as such is not yet well disciplined. Some might even call it a derivative discipline rather than a pure discipline. I would prefer to call it interdisciplinary, and because of its intermediate position or hybrid status it will perhaps have to struggle hard to achieve the status now accorded the pure disciplines.

Nevertheless, a review of the content of *COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW* in its short life would indicate that comparative education is making progress toward becoming a discipline. I am not at all sure that at this stage we should hold comparative education up for judgment against this decalogue for a mature and accepted discipline. There are some intermediate goals that would be of more value for growth. The fact of current concern with both methodology and theory is evidence that those interested in comparative education are exhibiting a disciplinary self-consciousness that portends a desirable kind of development.

What I would like to see Dr. Heath do is to revise the ten criteria as they might apply to a three-year-old, indicating which criteria are

most significant for a young discipline. As such the criteria could then become guidelines.

DOUGLAS RUGH
State Teachers College
of Connecticut

In a scholarly analysis of any educational problem, four steps would always have to be considered: *objectives*; *behavior* assumed to be performed in accordance with stated objectives; the "*setting of the stage*," i.e., opportunities provided for the performance of the desirable behavior; and *evaluation*, the evidence obtained that the stated objectives have been achieved. To examine any of these four steps in a given area of the world, one would have to compare it with corresponding factors in other areas of the world. Up to this point, a person comparing educational data is not yet a specialist committed to a discipline, the function of which "no other field of endeavor performs." To become a specialist in this precise sense, a student of education would have to:

- 1) have access to *primary sources* enabling him to study *objectives*, *behavior*, "*stage-setting*," and *evaluation* in at least three areas of the world, preferably widely apart in space. For at least two of these areas, the prospective specialist's access to *primary sources* of information would require a proficiency in at least two languages. Proficiency in a third language would be strongly recommended.
- 2) have had *actual experience of living* in at least two of the relevant areas, (say, at least six months in each). Actual experience of living in the third relevant area would be strongly recommended.

The above two *minimum requirements* are assumed to transform a student of education (always prepared to *compare*) into a *specialist in comparative education*. The latter's professionally unique competence would consist in substantiating *his* comparisons with the authority of one who commands knowledge of *primary sources of information in areas experientially familiar* to him. The specific goal of such prerequisites would be the forming of a body of specialists professionally qualified to attempt (though perhaps never to achieve) the definition of *objectives*, *behavior*, "*stage-setting*," and *evaluations* of educational systems in different countries. What results need not be laws, but helpful directives for the education of mankind.

ALFRED ADLER
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The term "discipline" seems to have at least

three rather distinctive, current meanings: 1) any field of systematic theoretical activity; 2) the specialized sciences; or 3) any academic field or area. In the first sense of the term, any activity, the purported goal of which is systematic knowledge, can be considered to be a discipline—philosophy, theology, biology, history, and so on, all are included. In the second use of the term, however, only those knowledge-seeking activities which employ the procedures of science are included. Finally, in the third meaning of the term, any academic field or area qualifies as a discipline. For example, the "fine arts" and "educational foundations" could be classed as disciplines in this sense, since they frequently are recognized as academic fields in college catalogs, organizational tables, and the like.

It should be apparent that each of these three conceptions entails different criteria of disciplinary status. Recognition as an *academic field*, for example, may involve little more than administrative convenience, the forcefulness of some faculty member, or other similar factors. Academic areas can develop with little or no conceptual, theoretical, or methodological uniqueness, or even without distinct data upon which to use borrowed concepts, theories, and the like. In this sense, the achievement of disciplinary status for comparative education is apt to be a local matter, depending upon administrative arrangements, personnel policies (will this require a new budget line?), intra-faculty relationships (will this create animosity?), the personality or reputation of the sup- pliant, and so on.

To be recognized as a *knowledge-seeking activity*, however, comparative education will have to present different credentials. Just what these are is not clear, for criteria of recognition here are as varied as are conceptions of the nature and methods of knowing. Astrology would be called a discipline by some; philosophy would not be called a discipline by some. Perhaps the existence of outspoken practitioners, a journal, and a society is enough to qualify comparative education to be considered a discipline in this sense.

Recognition as a *scientific, knowledge-seeking activity*, on the other hand, offers the greatest challenge to comparative education, and places the greatest responsibilities upon practitioners; because here the concepts and theories of the activity must meet the test of scientific function—that is, objective description, explanation, and prediction. In this sense, the question "Is comparative education a discipline?" demands

an answer in conceptual, theoretical, and methodological terms. Dr. Templeton writes in such terms in the same issue of the *Review* that carried Dr. Heath's article. Involved, too, are the boundaries of the field, however vague, and its relationships to established disciplines.

In other words, if comparative education is to be honored as a discipline in this most demanding sense, it must justify itself as a specialized science; it must justify its concepts, theories, methods, and objectives as scientific. In this process consideration of matters of practitioner education, competence, ethics, and associations is not irrelevant; it is, however, *secondary*, because such considerations tend to *presuppose* some clarity with respect to the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological characteristics of the discipline.

If it is once admitted that the objective of the comparative study of education is the attainment of scientific knowledge, then comparative education must submit to the criteria which are implicit in this admission. In this case several of Dr. Heath's criteria become questionable, to say the least. For instance, the demand that the comparative study of education "benefit" humanity seems singularly inappropriate. It is widely held, in this connection, that scientific knowledge can serve either benevolent or malevolent intent in the human scene, and any prescription that science be beneficent gravely infringes upon scientific processes. Are practitioners of the comparative study of education quite ready to guarantee that their findings cannot be used to the disadvantage of mankind?

The question "Is comparative education a discipline?" *can* be important; its importance depends, however, upon the meaning assigned to the term "discipline." This writer believes that Dr. Heath has given that term a meaning which is both inappropriate and relatively insignificant.

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Comparative Education Society Field Study for Japan and Korea, headed by Dr. W. W. Brickman and Dr. Gerald Read, has been tentatively set for August 16 to September 20, 1959. The Society has been invited to participate in the International Conference on Educational Research at Tokyo University, August 29 to September 7.

G.Z.F.B.

EDUCATION AND COMMUNISM IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE SAHARA

DAVID G. SCANLON

Africa south of the Sahara is today the largest geographical unit still controlled by European powers. Africa, conquered by Europe in the closing decades of the nineteenth century, remains the only continent in which colonialism is a major issue. The colonial issue is a difficult problem for the United States. Historically we have always supported the right of self-determination, but to support nationalism in Africa is to oppose our European allies.

Prior to World War II little was said of the possibility of colonies becoming independent states. Those who were reckless enough to set a timetable spoke in terms of independence in seventy-five to one hundred years. However, as the close of World War I witnessed the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian and Russian Empires, so too did the close of World War II see the independence of countries in Asia formerly controlled by Britain, the Netherlands, and France. The wave of nationalism and independence which swept through Asia following World War II, and which today is such a strong factor in the Middle East difficulties, is also sweeping Africa.

In Africa south of the Sahara are found all the elements that are common in many areas of the world today: The emergence of an educated African group (elite) dedicated to independence; the impact of modern technology with the consequent disruption of centuries-old village cultural patterns; the growth of urban areas bringing together people speaking various languages and with varying cultural backgrounds; the desire to effect rapid change—and solve pressing problems of health, economic improvement, and education; the develop-

ment of a feeling of common bonds with Asia, exemplified by the Bandung Conference and the Cairo Conference; and a concern for those newly independent states in North Africa and particularly for the nationalists of Algeria.

It is difficult to speak of common denominators in a continent with seven hundred to one thousand languages, with thousands of tribal units living under various colonial influences. While Africa north of the Sahara has a fairly well-established Islamic culture it is in Africa south of the Sahara that differences in the various indigenous African cultures and European cultures become most apparent. The Liberian student in an American university is as different from a French West African student in a French university as is an American from a Frenchman.

Nationalism

Despite the differences, however, there remains throughout Africa south of the Sahara the strong drive for nationalism. In British West Africa the problem of nationalism has been alleviated with the independence of Ghana and the expected independence of Nigeria within a few years. Where the European has settled in Africa, the problem of nationalism is more difficult. In British East Africa the problem is complicated by European settlers in Kenya and in Northern and Southern Rhodesia. The large number of Europeans in Portuguese Angola will undoubtedly create a problem when the Africans of the area become educated. The problem is most acute in South Africa where the government-sponsored *apartheid* legislation is attempting to build a wall between Africans and Europeans.

The government of the Belgian Congo, considered by many observers to be the most stable area in Africa, was shocked in July 1956 to find an African periodical, *Conscience Africaine*, issuing a special "Manifesto" requesting that the Belgians permit the people who live in the Congo to run the government. While the "Manifesto" was a mild statement calling for a thirty-year time limit, the fact that it appeared at all was considered amazing. In French Africa south of the Sahara the strongest political movement is the *Rassemblement Démocratique Africain (RDA)*. While the RDA at its conference in Bamako in September 1957 urged a democratic French-African community based on the principles of equality, it recognized that all people have the right to independence. The conference also urged that the French Government negotiate with representatives of the Algerian people to end the civil war in North Africa. This same concern for Algeria was expressed at the Accra Conference in April of this year—the first high-level conference of the eight independent countries of Africa. The conference urged that all colonial powers establish a timetable for the independence of their territories and recommended that participating governments give all possible assistance to the dependent people in their struggle for independence.

The United Nations has served as an excellent means by which the Soviet Union, through innumerable speeches, has consistently attempted to appear as defender of African nationalism in the same manner in which she has appeared as the defender of Arab nationalism. Until 1955 the Soviet Union used a dual approach to the problem of African nationalism. While the Soviet delegate praised African nationalism before the United Nations, the Soviet press attacked such African leaders as Nkrumah of Ghana and Mboya of Kenya as agents of the West. This dual approach ended in 1955 with the creation of a new policy supporting all African nationalists. Jomo Ken-

yatta was hailed as a hero and "Mau-Mau" viewed as a myth created to destroy the Kikuyu and leaders of African nationalism.

Economic Development and Trade

Parallel with the new policy of support of African nationalists, trade with Africa has been greatly expanded by the U.S.S.R. and the Soviet bloc. While in 1956 their exports amounted to only \$145,492,000 as compared to \$654,000,000 by the United States, the Soviet Union is conducting a campaign to increase trade throughout Africa. In addition, Communist China is trying to develop trade with Africa and on July 2, 1958, a seven-man trade mission arrived in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland to discuss trade possibilities between the Federation and China.

Russian loans for development are attractive for countries struggling to meet the many demands of social services. The loans are ordinarily offered at low interest rates (one to three per cent), are long term (twenty years and beyond), and the Soviet Union will take exportable surpluses. This would provide to many areas the opportunity of obtaining badly needed machinery.

Broadcasts

While attempts at increasing trade have been pressed by the U.S.S.R., broadcasts to Africa from Moscow and the Eastern European Communist countries have been increased. Broadcasts in English, French, and Arabic are heard as far south as the Union of South Africa. They are made on wave lengths so strong that it is possible in West Africa to pick them up on the most inexpensive battery radio, which is the only type many Africans can afford. Broadcasts in Arabic to Central Africa have also been started by Communist China. The broadcasts are excellent examples of good propaganda techniques—touching upon the particular irritation of the moment while extolling the virtues of the Communist world.

Books and Publications

The appearance of Communist literature has disturbed many African leaders. Some publications were smuggled through the French port of Douala and were offered free to booksellers. Teaching aids and other materials for teachers, presented with the Soviet point of view, were included. Their use would undoubtedly be a most effective means of spreading propaganda. In many areas of Africa books and publications are scarce. It would be difficult for any teacher to refuse the opportunity to acquire free books or periodicals, particularly in view of the relatively high cost of foreign publications and the low salaries of the teachers.

The source of other Communist publications has been traced to ships from satellite countries stopping at African ports. The *Christian Science Monitor* (March 1957) reported a clandestine flow of Communist materials into Nigeria which was halted by Nigerian officials.

Soviet Effort to Attract Students

Since 1955 the Soviet Union has been making a greater effort at winning over African students. Attempts have been made to bring students to meetings of Communist-front organizations such as the World Federation of Democratic Youth, the International Union of Students, and the World Federation of Teachers.

Communists have long made a special effort at cultivating the friendship of Africans studying abroad. This was particularly true in Europe where in many instances the African student, alone in a strange country, found the Communists and Communist-front organizations ready to offer help and, perhaps of even greater importance, friendship to the new arrivals. This situation has been improved considerably by the efforts of the various host countries to provide services for the African students.

Through scholarships and special inducements the Soviet Union has been able to attract students for study in Moscow or in

a satellite country. The writer had lunch with a student who had finished the requirements for the M.D. degree at a leading American university. He had recently returned from an international medical meeting in Europe where he had been invited to deliver a paper. When asked about his plans for the future, he replied that he would soon be leaving for Moscow where he had been awarded a scholarship. With this scholarship it would be possible for the young man to marry and bring his wife to Moscow, where an apartment would be provided free, as well as tuition and books. Tickets for the opera, theater, and symphony would also be furnished free. The scholarship would allow the African an additional two years of advanced study at practically no cost to him.

The number of African students studying in Moscow and the satellite countries is infinitesimal compared to the thousands studying in western Europe, the United States, and India. The important issue is not in terms of numbers, but is rather the new effort made by Moscow to attract students.

Special Training School for Africans

An account carried in a number of African newspapers in 1957 reported the establishment of a two-year seminar in Communism on the outskirts of Prague. Two hundred Africans from north, east, central, and southern sections were reported by the Czechoslovakian press to be taking part. The seminar is designed to produce leaders oriented to Communism and who will be capable of assuming leadership in their respective areas on their return to Africa. It is interesting to note that no representatives from West Africa, the area that is developing independence most rapidly, were reported at the seminar.

Activities of the Confédération Générale du Travail

In the trade-union movement one of the most active groups has been the *Confédération Générale du Travail* (CGT), a mem-

ber of the Communist-sponsored *World Federation of Trade Unions*. Active in Algeria and French West Africa, the CGT established a training school for Africans on the outskirts of Paris. The school offers an eight- to ten-week course on trade-union methods and political orientation for selected Africans. Relays of Africans, including teachers, go through the school and then return to their respective areas. In addition to this orientation the CGT supplies pamphlets and materials dealing with trade unionism and offering at the same time the political propaganda of the WFTU. The power of the WFTU has recently been challenged by the *International Confederation of Free Trade Unions* which represents the non-Communist unions. In support of the ICFTU Prime Minister Nkrumah sponsored a conference in Accra in 1957 which was attended by representatives from eighteen African countries. The success of the conference has done much to offset the power of the WFTU.

Guerilla Warfare in Cameroun

The *Union des Populations du Cameroun* (UPC), a group viewed as Communist infiltrated, carried on guerilla warfare for several months against African supporters of the French Government. Unlike Mau-Mau in Kenya, which was cleared of Communist affiliation by a British investigative committee, the UPC has followed a policy closely allied with the Communists. Because of the violence used by the UPC, the group was banned by the French Government in 1955. The continual violence of the eight hundred members of the UPC against African villages led the French Government to deploy infantry troops to the region. The guerilla warfare used in the area represents the first overt acts of violence by a group known to be infiltrated by Communists.

Interest of the Soviet Union in Africa

While 1955 marked the shift in the Soviet approach to nationalist leaders, it also represented a new emphasis on African

studies. The Mikloukho-Maklai Institute of Ethnography of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences published *Peoples of Africa*, a 732-page survey, as the first volume in a ten-volume series on Peoples of the World. Other publications of the Institute concerned with Africa include *Ethnography in the Service of Imperialism*, *The Formation of National Community Among the South African Bantu*, *The People of Kenya Under a Colonial Regime*, and *Anglo-American Ethnography in the Service of Imperialism*. In addition to the publications of the Institute a series of booklets called *Countries of Africa* has appeared. These booklets, selling for 50 kopecks, are considered part of the popular reference series. The booklets are approximately thirty pages in length and are an encyclopedic-like presentation of the respective areas. In the interest of developing competence in language, dictionaries and grammars are being prepared in Zulu, Amharic, Hausa, and Swahili.

Reaction of Africans to Communism

At the present time the reaction to Communism has been for the most part negative. Few educated Africans have adopted Communism or followed a Communist-inspired line. It is ironic that African leaders such as Nkrumah and Mboya have taken the more positive anti-Communist positions while Communism has been more successful in such colonial areas as French West Africa. In Ghana Communists have been denied employment in what are considered important government departments since 1954. It was Nkrumah who suspended Tunkson Ocean, one of the most powerful figures in his party, when Ocean tried to bring the trade unions under Communist control. In Kenya it was Tom Mboya who blocked the efforts of the WFTU to control the Kenya trade-union movement. In Nigeria it was African leaders who banned active Communists from important departments of the government. The reaction of many African students is similar to the remark made by one when he said, "We have

not rid ourselves of one colonial power to be controlled by another colonial power."

The Russian propaganda offensive in Africa has barely begun. There is not at the present time a plan similar to the Four Block Scheme—workers, peasants, bourgeoisie, and intelligentsia—which was used in Asia. In the past, Africa has had the Middle East as a buffer. The Soviet effect on teachers and schools has been negligible.

At the same time Africa represents one of the most dynamic societies found anywhere in the world. In this fluid, plastic society propaganda could be most effective. Despite her methods, the accomplishments of the U.S.S.R. and China stand as an example of how it is possible to change a so-called undeveloped society into a more modern state. The enemies of many African nationalist leaders, England, France, Portugal, Spain

are also opposed to the Soviet Union. The Communists have used freedom from colonial rule and freedom from the color bar as party slogans. Concepts such as civil liberties can mean little to a people who have never known them. In many areas such as Ghana the foundation of a good educational system was established, but in other areas such as Portuguese Angola the illiteracy rate of 97 per cent speaks poorly for the half century of colonial rule. The loyalty of Africans to western conceptions of democracy speaks well for those fortunate enough to have received an education. The basic issue is whether the educational system will be able to serve the changing society. Is it possible to teach democratic concepts and not permit the practicing of the concepts?

The final answer will be decided by the Africans.

THE KHRUSHCHEV SCHOOL REFORM

ALBERT BOITER

A sweeping reform of the Soviet educational system was approved as law in the sessions of both the houses of the Supreme Soviet of the Soviet Union on December 24, 1958. Implementation of this reform plan will begin in 1959, so the current academic year will be the last for Soviet schools under the pattern of theory and practice which has been dominant for more than a quarter-century.

The major features of the reform were first unveiled by Khrushchev in his speech to the 13th Komsomol Congress in April 1958 and in his long "note" published in *Pravda* on September 21, 1958. The reform plan is closely linked, therefore, to Khrushchev's name and properly may be called the

Khrushchev School Reform, although deeper investigation will reveal that few of its provisions can be credited to Khrushchev's originality or initiative. It is more accurate to say that he is merely injecting himself into the cast of a drama that already has been in production for four decades.

The most detailed statement of the reform plan prior to its enactment is the form in which it was approved by the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers. This 15,000-word document appeared in the form of "theses" in *Pravda* on November 16, 1958¹ and is more specific than the text of the law which substantially follows its provisions. The present article will

be confined to a descriptive summary of this document and a commentary on it.

It may be stated at the outset that the significance of the reform lies not so much in the manner in which the organizational structure of Soviet schools is to be juggled, as in the effect it will have on the academic careers and aspirations of millions of individual Soviet students and educators.

The "theses" of November, although more detailed than Khrushchev's earlier "note," still fall short of an exact blueprint of the future school system. Some areas are dealt with in such vague terms that various patterns may emerge when the plan is implemented. There is, in fact, an ubiquitous tone of caution as if certain resistance points and difficulties were already foreseen. The reform is to take place piecemeal in the next three to five years and the "theses" are silent about certain legislative and administrative changes which seem called for. Aside from such hazy areas, however, the "theses" set the guide lines for the future clearly enough.

The reform plan as published is a relentlessly consistent argument on how to apply its avowed goal, i.e., "to strengthen the link between school and life." This is a euphemism meaning, roughly, that all youths must in the future be trained for a specific niche in the labor force while acquiring the requisite *modicum* of general education. The word "polytechnical," which occupies a large place in the reform plan, has about the same general meaning.

The Eight-Year Compulsory School

The new basic unit of mass education to be made uniform throughout the Soviet Union will be a compulsory eight-year "General Education, Labor and Polytechnical School." With few exceptions, it will be the first school for all Soviet children between seven and fifteen (or sixteen) years of age. It will be divided into two parts: the first four years will be regarded (as at present) as elementary school, while the second four years will be considered the "first stage" of secondary education. As late

as September, Khrushchev had left the question open as to whether this basic school should cover seven or eight years. No such latitude is left by the new law which instructs the Union Republics to pass new legislation proclaiming universal, compulsory eight-year education.

Is this eight-year school an extension of the present seven-year school or a retrenchment on the present ten-year school? With respect to the curriculum it is the former. The "theses" claim that the extra year added to the present seven-year curriculum will permit "less overloading" of students. But it is clear that the extra year will be fully accounted for by the new activities described as "polytechnical" studies—home economics for girls, school workshops for boys, lectures on labor, work-experience projects, visits to plants, field trips, physical education, and youth organization (the *Pioneers*) activities.

As for the present ten-year school a radical operation will be performed to separate its last three years—considered the "second stage" of secondary education—from the lower classes. The goal of making the ten-year school universal and compulsory, established by the Party Congress of 1939 and reaffirmed in 1952, is effectively abrogated by the new plan. The latest guiding principle on this point is the instruction of the 20th CPSU Congress of 1956, which declared that youths should receive "ten years of schooling" but not necessarily in the ten-year general education schools.

Administration of eight-year schools will be the responsibility of local organs. The cost of new school buildings will fall on the funds of collective farms and cooperative organizations as well as on budgeted government funds.

On the Job After the Eighth Year

The heart of the Khrushchev school reform was stated in his September "note" in *Pravda*:

In my opinion, after they have finished seven or eight years at school, all school children

without exception should take part in socially useful labor at enterprises, collective farms, and other places of work. Both in town and in the countryside, as well as at worker settlements, all children finishing school should go to work in production. No one must evade this stage. . . . I repeat, there must be no exceptions in this matter.

Despite the unequivocal tone of this pronouncement it always has been clear that there would be "exceptions" in practice. Less forcefully, and in more general terms, the "theses" repeat the Khrushchev dictum and speak of it as "the point of departure for the correct solution of the task of reorganizing the schools." But, aside from references which make it evident that some pupils will continue in school after the eighth grade without going directly into productive jobs, the "theses" do not contain sufficient information on which one might judge what proportion of young people will find it possible to continue their studies beyond the eighth grade as their main preoccupation. Obscurity on this point doubtless can be attributed to the gigantic unsolved problem of how to absorb several million adolescent workers into existing enterprises in an orderly fashion. Khrushchev admitted in September that Soviet factory managers "are very much against employing adolescents and young people below eighteen years of age." It is wholly understandable that factory executives who are under pressure to meet high production schedules, to lower plant costs, and to increase labor productivity are reluctant to have their plants cluttered by a mass influx of low-productivity trainees or part-time workers. Surprisingly, the reform plan in its latest version will spare industrial managers this danger. (See below under "vocational schools.") The whole problem is reserved for future solution by the State Planning Commission (GOSPLAN).

Secondary General Education

For the Soviet youth bent upon qualifying for entrance into a higher educational

institution two principal paths are left open by the reform plan. Both are voluntary and both involve a certain amount of vocational training.

Schools of Working Youth and Rural Youth.—The main path will be through this network of after-hours classwork which has existed in the USSR since 1943. This is a general education school offering the same curriculum as the eighth through tenth years of the present ten-year school by means of evening classes or by home-study and correspondence courses.² Students choosing this path to secondary education will, upon completing the eighth grade, go first into a full-time job in production where they normally will have to undergo a brief period of vocational training. After getting established in their jobs they may elect to study in these schools in shift, evening, or correspondence classwork. At a later period, if they satisfy certain unspecified conditions, the student may be released from work as much as two or three days a week for his school work.

Secondary General Education, Labor, and Polytechnical Schools with Production Training.—This new type of three-year school apparently will be a result of the divorce which the reform plan imposes upon the ten-year schools. The school will be the choice normally for young people who have already decided at the age of fifteen or sixteen about their future profession. In these schools the academic curriculum will be combined with "polytechnical" education and a type of factory or agricultural apprenticeship corresponding to the choice of profession. The place and time of the "socially useful work" will depend upon the profession chosen. Upon graduation from this school, the student will be qualified to apply for enrollment in a higher educational institution and will already have earned a certificate testifying to his qualifications in his profession. The "theses" state vaguely that this new school may be connected with an eight-year school or be wholly independent.

Secondary Specialized Education

A possible third path to higher education is provided by the large network of technicums, usually lumped together under the general designation "secondary specialized educational establishments." But only the outstanding five per cent of the graduating class will be eligible under present regulations to apply for admission to the corresponding higher technological institute where engineering degrees are awarded. For at least 95 per cent of enrollees, therefore, the technicum is a goal in itself, a scholastic and professional dead end.

The aim of the technicums, as stated in the "theses," is to turn out technicians, "the organizers of production." Technicum graduates fill the medium strata of skilled managerial staffs in industry and agriculture, and also become practitioners in cultural, educational, and health establishments. Most of the teachers in the present seven-year schools, for example, are graduates only of pedagogical *tekhnicumy*, although the "theses" set a distant goal of having teachers at all levels of the school system complete training in a university (*VUZ*).

Entrance into a technicum will be based upon the completion of an eight-year school just as it is presently based on the seven-year school. But the technicum also will be open to graduates of the "second stage" of secondary education (eleven years) for an accelerated program. No uniform training period can be given for this varied collection of schools, but recent official statements in the Soviet press indicate that they range from three to five years.

How students at a technicum will meet the demand for combining their studies with production training is less clearly treated in the "theses" than is the case with other types of schools. It is recommended that "preference" in this regard be given to evening classes and independent study (correspondence), but one may infer that at least half of the students enrolled in technicums will be resident, full-time students. Another sug-

gestion is that the technicum could create factory shops (*tsekh*) or workshops (*master-skaya*) which will manufacture finished goods for sale on the market.

Schools for the Gifted

The most controversial aspect of the reform plan as reflected in the Soviet press immediately following the publication of the "theses" concerns the continuance of special secondary schools for gifted children. Such schools seem normal enough for the training of persons with talents in music, ballet, art, and the like. But the "theses" added the hint that tuition will be charged in these schools, giving rise immediately to the suspicion that they will become institutions for the privileged rather than the gifted. These schools accept certified geniuses directly from the eight-year school for a two-year course, after which the graduate proceeds to a higher educational institution.

Another controversial point concerning these schools was initiated when a number of leading Soviet scientists proposed that youths with discernible talents in the natural sciences—especially physics, mathematics, chemistry, and biology—be exempted from the work-connected requirement and trained in special schools for future scientists.³ This question was not resolved in the "theses" but later statements by high Party and government officials indicate that opinion has crystalized against this request.

All mention of the schools for the gifted was left out of the final text of the law.

Boarding Schools

To the surprise of many observers, the subject of boarding schools appeared in the "theses" although with an abbreviated treatment. This was a surprise because there had been a mysterious silence about boarding schools in the Soviet press and in the speeches of officials for nearly a year. Even Khrushchev failed to mention them in his September "note" despite the fact that they had been launched in the fall of 1956 with

much fanfare and were generally considered a pet project of Khrushchev himself because of his initiative on this matter at the 20th CPSU Congress.

They are now referred to as the kind of school which "creates the most favorable conditions for the education and communist upbringing of the rising generation." One may infer from this brief reference that these schools are regarded officially as a prototype for the distant future, but that it is pointless to discuss them at length at the present time because a more fundamental reform of mass education must come first. These "model" schools may be set up with a curriculum of either eight or eleven years. The "theses" also urge collective farmers to consider converting parts of their local schools to include the boarding-school principle. This suggests that the ultimate transition to a system of broading schools will involve not so much a further reform of the school system as a gradual conversion of the schools now being instituted into schools of the boarding-school type. In any event, a considerable expansion of boarding schools is projected under the new Seven-Year Plan. A *Pravda* editorial on November 18, 1958, said they will have 2.5 million students in 1965 as compared to the present 180,000.

Vocational Schools

A major revision of the Labor Reserve system will take place under the new reform plan. All the great variety of schools now under the Chief Administration of Labor Reserves will be amalgamated in the next three to five years into two categories of professional-technical schools (*uchilishcha*)—one type for the town and another for rural areas. All the present trade schools in the Labor Reserve system are closely affiliated with a single governmental agency or serve only a single large factory. The reform will alter this drastically in favor of schools organized on geographical lines, operating independently of plant premises, and offering instruction in skills which might be used in various types of plants in the area.

The town schools will operate both day and night classes with courses lasting from one to three years, depending upon the complexity of the skill being taught. The rural schools will offer various mechanical and agricultural courses lasting from one to two years.

New arrangements will have to be worked out for coordinating the work of students in these independent trade schools with nearby industrial plants. This task has been assigned mainly to GOSPLAN which, apparently, will work out a system of "quotas" to which a factory management will be asked to agree. Some factories will continue to have an unspecified number of young workers in apprenticeship workshops, but such people will be sent to the nearest town *uchilishcha* if theoretical instruction is needed.

The reform plan speaks of the gradual transition of the new trade schools to a self-supporting basis because of the goods which the students will produce in connection with their instruction. For this reason the trade schools will pay their students apprentice wages in lieu of free food and board. Nothing is said in the "theses" about the labor draft of youths upon which the Labor Reserve school system originally was based.

Higher Education

The Soviet Union has two basic types of higher educational institutions: the VUZ (universities with affiliated research and humanities institutes) and the VTUZ (higher technological institutes). These have a combined enrollment in the current year in excess of two million and a capacity each year for about 450,000 new students, but only half this number can be full-time resident students. The remainder are enrolled in evening classes or pursue the curriculum by independent study through correspondence.

The reform plan calls for a huge increase in the proportion of students in evening and correspondence work. This apparently will be done at the expense of a reduction in the

number of students in full-time study inasmuch as no mention is made of a projected expansion of higher education facilities.⁴ It is decreed that the vast majority of future students enrolling in higher education will be required to complete the first two years of the normal five-year course by means of evening classes or correspondence work. During these two years they will continue working in a full-time job in production. Only those students in disciplines requiring a basic theoretical foundation in the first two years will be exempted from this provision, but they will merely postpone their two years of work-connected study to a later stage of their academic careers.

The "theses" define the basic role of the two types of higher educational institutions as follows: a) the VUZ "trains specialists for research establishments and teachers for secondary schools"; b) the VTUZ "trains engineers who will be capable not only of making full use of modern machines but also of creating the machines of the future."

Aside from the two years of work-connected study, the "theses" leaves it to the individual school to work out forms of combining productive work with study. One innovation suggested is the creation of "factory-VTUZ." These would be local branches of a regular VTUZ operated in connection with a single large industrial enterprise. This is one of Khrushchev's pet ideas, first expressed at the Komsomol Congress, and apparently attractive to Khrushchev because it recalls the *rabfak* (workers' faculties) of the 1920's and 1930's in which he himself acquired what formal higher education he possesses.

Competitive examinations will continue to play an important role in the process of selecting students for higher educational institutions. The "theses" even propose that the selection of professors be done by competitive tests. As for students aspiring to enter a VUZ or VTUZ, they will get special weighting for their grades on that portion of the general entrance examination related to their chosen specialty and for previous

work experience in that specialty. But the criteria of selection will give a large role to the recommendations in the applicant's personnel folder from so-called public organizations—the Komsomol, Communist Party, Trade Union, and education officials. The leaders of such organizations are enjoined by the "theses" to seek out talented students and to press for their admission into higher education.

If the ideals of the reform plan can be fully realized, there will be no students at the university level in the future who are there to pursue knowledge for its own sake. The ultimate test of enrollment policy is the requirement that it be wielded "so that really the best people will be selected, those who will be capable of successfully applying in production—after a brief period of time—the knowledge they have gained." It is on this utilitarian theme that the whole reform plan is based.

The real impetus behind Khrushchev's school reform, so far as one can judge from Soviet materials, seems to come from ideological and social rather than economic considerations. The "theses" dwell at length on the more purposive aims which should permeate all school activities in the future. The most explicit general goal set forth by the CPSU is the ideological preparation of the rising generation to live under communism. The reforms are more than a pious wish about the future. They catalog the specific indictment by the Soviet leaders of the present generation of Soviet young people. The much-discussed Soviet youth problem, therefore, must be regarded as primary.

But there can be no doubt, if one reads the Soviet press carefully, that *wholesale* opposition to the school reform exists inside the Soviet Union. The most vocal opposition comes from the teaching profession itself and, somewhat surprisingly, it still finds cautious expression in Soviet pedagogical literature. Next, the managers of the Soviet economy are unenthusiastic about if not openly hostile to the parts of the reform which directly affect their enterprises. Then

come the students and parents of students, whose attitude even Khrushchev does not try to conceal. But mass opinion has not in the past been a barrier to enactment of Khrushchev's personal renovation of long-standing institutions and it may be doubted whether it is likely to prove now to be such a factor in his reshaping and reconstruction of the Soviet school system.

REFERENCES

¹ The full title is "Theses on Strengthening of the Link Between School and Life and on the Further Development of the System of Public Education in the Country."

² These schools actually offer instruction at lower levels as well and will continue to do so in the future. We are concerned here only with that portion of their work designated as "second stage" secondary education.

³ See article by N. N. Semenov, well-known

physicist and a full member of the USSR Academy of Sciences, in *Pravda*, October 17, 1958, and a letter by Academicians Ya. Zeldovich and A. Sakharov in *Pravda*, November 19, 1958. The Semenov article is available in English in *The Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, Vol. X, No. 42, November 26, 1958, pp. 6-8. The translated text of Khrushchev's April 18th speech, at the 13th Congress of the YCL, appears in *The Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, Vol. X, No. 17, June 4, 1958, pp. 17-19, and the translated text of Khrushchev's memorandum on school reorganization appears in *The Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, Vol. X, No. 38, October 29, 1958, pp. 3-7. See also an article by George Z. F. Bereday and Richard V. Rapacz, "Khrushchev's Proposals for Soviet Education," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 60, No. 3, December 1958, pp. 138-149.

⁴ The "theses" call for some expansion of higher education facilities in Central Asia and Siberia, but reaffirm previous decisions to decrease enrollment in these institutions in large cities such as Moscow, Leningrad, and Kiev.

REGIONAL TRAINING CENTERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN FRANCE

ROBERT JOLLY

The person who wants to teach in secondary school in France has three major tasks: (1) to pass his *baccalauréat*, the general examination which terminates secondary schooling and is a requirement for all university study; (2) to obtain a *licence*, a university degree approximately equal to our Master's degree; (3) to spend one year in one of the newly created (1952) Regional Education Centers (*Centres Pédagogiques Régionaux*). There are seventeen of these tuition-free centers in France, one for each *académie* (educational division). Their function is twofold: to provide opportunity for practice-teaching and study of the theory

of education, and to make it possible for the candidate to do graduate study in his field. Before describing these centers in more detail, the different types of training programs which preceded them will be discussed briefly.¹

The oldest and most reputable credential for secondary school teaching is called the *agrégation*. It was first offered in 1821 and

¹ An account of this development is given in a publication of the French Ministry of National Education entitled *Recrutement et Formation des Maîtres de l'Enseignement du Second Degré*, Service d'Édition et de Vente des Publications de l'Éducation Nationale, 13, rue du Four, Paris (VI), 1954.

has remained, through the years, the degree most sought after and most difficult to obtain. It qualifies the holder for a position in one of the best secondary schools in France—those which have the responsibility of preparing students for the most selective institutions of higher learning in the country.

In 1942, it was decided to create a different credential so that more secondary teachers would be available. This credential was the College Teachers Certificate (*Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement dans les Collèges or CAEC*); it was less specialized than the *agrégation* since it qualified the holder to teach two subjects. This certificate was abolished after ten years because it was found to be too difficult for a candidate to prepare himself in a short time in two disciplines.

The second of the new type of credential was created in 1951 and was called the Secondary Teachers Certificate (*Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement du Second Degré or CAPES*). Its goal was to provide a training less rigorous than that of either the *agrégation* or the College Teachers Certificate. To obtain this credential the candidate spent two years in a boarding school. He taught ten hours per week where the regular teaching load was eighteen hours, and he was also required to do ten hours of surveillance duties. His program was arranged so that he had two days each week to attend university courses in the field of his specialization. An important aspect of this program was that each candidate was assigned an "educational counselor"—an experienced teacher who supervised his activities. After passing his examination, the candidate was qualified to teach in a secondary school.

Unfortunately, this program was found to have two serious weaknesses, and was discontinued in 1955. First, the examiners who judged the candidate at the end of the two years said that the work was extremely difficult to evaluate. Second, it was often necessary to assign the candidates to schools distant from universities and, worse still, from

their educational counselors. Of course, this meant that the candidate's university studies were sporadic and that the influence of his counselors was less effective than it should have been.

The secondary teachers certificate, new program (*CAPES, nouveau régime*), was started January 17, 1952. It was designed to meet the requirements of professional training in a positive way while correcting the weaknesses of the two preceding credentials. (It replaces the college teachers certificate and the first secondary teachers credential, but not the *agrégation*.) To train candidates for this credential required the establishment of a new type of institution, the regional education centers, where future secondary school teachers spend one year, practice-teaching and studying.

Written and oral admission examinations to these centers are in the candidates' own fields. The following description of the examination for the future teachers of French shows the standards for all candidates:

I. Written

- A. A French composition
- B. An examination on grammar and style
- C. A foreign-language examination

II. Oral

- A. A 45-minute explanation of a grammatical or literary text
- B. 15 minutes of general questions (the purpose of this part of the oral is to determine the candidate's attitude toward the teaching profession and other qualifications not susceptible to written tests.)

During this year in the center, the candidate is involved in four types of activity: (1) student-teaching in secondary schools, (2) initiation to the extracurricular aspects of secondary schools, (3) studying educational theory, and (4) studying his speciality to prepare for the examination of the *agrégation*.

For student teaching, each candidate is assigned a counselor. The year is divided into three nine-week periods, each with a different counselor. The candidate observes or teaches eight hours each week and is re-

sponsible for the correction of homework for these periods. Preparation for student teaching takes a lot of time because much importance is attached to the writing of lesson plans. These are written in the preparation notebook (*cahier de préparation*) and must include, along with lesson plans and their corrections, the personal comments of the candidate on the effectiveness of the lesson. These notebooks are similar in function and importance to those which have been required of French school children for generations.²

The second activity of the candidate is called initiation to the extracurricular aspects of school. He attends teachers' meetings (at least two each month) and may be asked to take the minutes. He participates in parent-teacher conferences when he knows the student involved. Finally, he visits dif-

²For a description of these notebooks and discussion of their educational value, see Rollo W. Brown, *How a French Boy Learns to Write*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1915, Chap. III.

Activity	Time Per Week
1. Student teaching	8 hours
2. Lectures on education, institutes, teachers' meetings, parent-teacher conferences, etc.	2-3 hours
3. University courses	12-15 hours
4. Physical education	
a. Obligatory sports program	1 hour
b. Optional skiing or hiking excursion	½ day

In the opinion of the directors of the program, the most important activity of the candidate is his preparation for the *agrégation*. This consists of university course work (plus many more hours of private study, of course) in the speciality of the candidate. In order to show the standards of the exami-

ferent types of schools and familiarizes himself with their operation.

The third aspect of his training, studying educational theory, consists of attending lectures and institutes. The following is a partial list of the titles of lectures given at the center in Grenoble in 1957:

Student Records and Vocational Guidance
Finances of a Lycée
The University Bureau of Statistics (an organization which deals with guidance)
Teaching in French Overseas Possessions
The Voice of the Teacher
Explanation of Literary and Grammatical Texts
Correction of Homework
How to Use Films in Teaching
Laboratory Work in Science Classes

In addition to these lectures, two- or three-day institutes are organized in each of the educational divisions of the country. There are three or four each year and they treat the same kind of subjects as the lectures.

The following is an estimate of the weekly schedule of a student in one of the regional education centers:

Monday, 8 AM to 3 PM
Tuesday, 8 AM to Noon
Wednesday, 8 AM to 11:30 AM
 2 PM to 5:30 PM
Friday, 8 AM to Noon
Saturday, 8 AM to Noon

French composition
Translation from Greek into French
Grammatical study of old French texts
Grammatical study of modern French texts
Translation from Latin into French
Translation from French into Latin

The other examination, *agrégation des lettres*, is similar except that the sections on grammar are replaced by translations.

In preparing for these examinations, the candidates know one year in advance which authors to study. For example, in the schedule above, there were five writers to study for the French composition on Monday (e.g., the philosophical works of Diderot and seven plays of Molière). During the examination, the candidates had to write for seven hours on one of these writers. The sections on Greek, Latin, and grammar are of comparable difficulty, as are the examinations in the other specialties. It is easy to see why this is considered one of the most difficult examinations in France. In the year 1953-54, a total of 572 candidates were admitted to the centers; of this number 334 tried the examination in their different specialties, but of these only 43 passed.

The evaluation of the candidate's work at the center at the end of the year consists first of a practical examination. In this, he gives lessons to secondary school classes in his speciality. His performance is observed by a jury consisting of a national inspector, a counselor whose specialty is the same as the candidate's, and one or two others. Secondly, the jury considers reports on the candidate by all who know his work: his three counselors, the administrators of the schools where he has taught, and the director of the center. The candidate's preparation notebook with its entries for the year is also considered by the jury.

In the year 1953-54, the average number of candidates in each center was 26 (this does not include the one at Paris which was, of course, much larger). Since they are so small, the plants and staffs of the centers are quite modest. They can best be described by telling of a visit to Grenoble. The center there consists of two rooms set aside in the large boys' *lycée* of the town, a library of 3200 volumes, and a room for meetings and lectures. The staff consists of a director (also the president of the *lycée*), a secretary,

a librarian, and the teachers who serve as counselors. As to living accommodations, the candidates room and board in private homes or in university dormitories. The planners of the program deliberately avoided setting up dormitories for the students because they wanted them to broaden their viewpoints by living with people of other professions and interests.

In 1953, the directors of the program expressed themselves on its strengths and weaknesses. After one year of operation, they registered the following criticisms: (1) the university program for the *licence* degree, required of most candidates, should be more closely harmonized with the needs of secondary school teaching. (2) The student teachers need to do more unsupervised teaching. (3) Some of the candidates do not show enough interest in their graduate study. (4) On the subject of education lectures, it was noted that fewer candidates attended the lectures on general subjects than those on specialized subjects. Also, many agreed that there were too many of these lectures. In the past five years, steps have been taken to correct these faults. However, none of these criticisms was considered serious enough to require important modifications of the program.

In order to get a more recent evaluation, I asked M. Pagis, Director of the center in Grenoble, for his opinion of the program as it existed in July 1958. He said that he could not see any weaknesses and, regarding the advantages, he mentioned as most valuable for the candidates their close personal contact with experienced teachers.

It seems apparent that the directors of secondary education in France have developed an excellent training program for their teachers. They set high standards in the field of specialization of the candidates, and encourage them to continue with a rigorous program of graduate study. At the same time they give them a good introduction to both the theory and the practical aspects of teaching.

SOME COMPARATIVE CHECKPOINTS BETWEEN AMERICAN AND SOVIET SECONDARY EDUCATION

HENRY CHAUNCEY

In June 1958, as a member of the United States Office of Education delegation to the Soviet Union, the author of the comparative table presented below visited some 50 educational institutions in nine cities of the Soviet Union. The official status of the delegation insured his access to top-level sources of educational information. While the overall findings of the delegation are being pub-

lished in a separate report by the United States Office of Education, the present article provides a summary of the impressions of one member. Its service lies not only in supplying specific comparative data about the two countries, but also in the concept and method of presentation which might well be copied more widely in application to several other countries.

<i>Point of Comparison</i>	<i>The Soviet Union</i>	<i>The United States</i>
1. Main Purpose	Strengthen the state	Development of the individual
2. Organization	Centralized control	Decentralized control
3. Uniformity of program	Standard course	Wide variation
4. Nature of program	Rigorous academic program and polytechnical instruction (industrial arts)	Variety of general education courses and special courses according to interests and ability
a. Proportion taking straight academic program	All	20 to 25 per cent
b. Special provisions for the talented	None in regular school work (but though extra curricular clubs and academic competitions)	Enrichment or fast sections for the talented
c. Emphasis on science	Great emphasis (50 per cent mathematics and science in last 3 years)	Small emphasis (25 per cent mathematic and science in last 3 years)
d. Foreign languages	One language taught for a period of 5 years or more	Language, optional, usually not more than 2 or 3 years
e. Mathematics	Through advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry	Optional, but on the average only through elementary algebra
f. Humanities	Russian language and literature extensively taught	English language and American literature extensively taught
g. Social studies	Geography well taught; history neglected, except Soviet history	Social studies fully taught, but geography somewhat neglected
h. Shopwork	Extensive for all students	Only a course or two, except in vocational programs

<i>Point of Comparison</i>	<i>The Soviet Union</i>	<i>The United States</i>
5. Schedule		
a. School year	Early September to early June	Early September to early June
b. School week	6 days	5 days
c. Class hours per week in academic subjects	30	16
d. Hours of homework per night	3-½	2
6. Guidance and counseling	No formal program; aptitude and interests tests not used	Widespread—individual and group guidance available in many schools and increasing
7. Examinations	Standard examinations at end of seventh and tenth grades	No standard examinations
a. Types	Oral and essay	Objective and essay
b. Used as measuring instruments	Inadequate	Good
c. Motivating effect	Excellent	Varying effect on differing individuals
8. Teachers		
a. Supply	Adequate	Shortage
b. Length of training	Now 5 years after high school for secondary grades; 2 years after high school for primary grades.	4 or 5 years after high school
c. In-service training	Regular 1 day a week for 2 or 3 months every 3 years	Optional; regulations vary by state and district
d. Teaching load	18 hours a week	24 hours a week
e. Prestige of teacher	High	Medium to low
f. Salary	Equivalent to engineers and doctors	Equivalent to skilled labor
g. Number of applicants for training	4 or 5 to 1	1 to 1
h. Cost of teacher training	Tuition free and stipend for living expenses	Student pays tuition and living expenses except for few on scholarships
i. Emphases in teacher training	Content of subjects to be taught, theory of pedagogy, and specific methods of teaching individual topics	Content of subjects to be taught, but particular emphasis on pedagogical theory, etc.
j. Degree of specification of course topics	Course narrowed to most important topics; clearly specified	Teachers free to choose topics—generally broader coverage
k. Teachers' responsibility for success of students	Teacher held specifically responsible for success of every student	Teacher only generally responsible for class achievement
l. Individual tutoring by teachers	Extensive	Occasional

<i>Point of Comparison</i>	<i>The Soviet Union</i>	<i>The United States</i>
9. Research in education	Extensive research by institutes in Academy Pedagogical Sciences and systematic experimentation in schools	Research in bits and pieces by individuals in teachers colleges and universities throughout the country
10. Teacher participation in research	Encouraged by "readings" (reports of innovations and experiments)	Voluntary; infrequent
11. Ability to put research results into schools	In 4 or 5 years	In 30 years
12. Use of teaching aids	Extensive use of sound films, charts; three-dimensional teaching aids systematically developed to strengthen course	Many teaching aids available, but use optional, not very extensive and not developed in relation to textbooks
13. Motivation of students	Uniformly high	Marked variation from low to high, but generally only fair
14. Sources of motivation	Universal recognition of the importance of education and realization that future income and prestige depends on education	Depends on family background and environment; many distractions; future income only partially depends on education
15. Prospects of going on to higher education	Higher education free, with stipends to cover living expenses; however, only one place for every four applicants	Higher education open to all at student's expense; low tuition at tax-supported institutions; scholarships.

EDUCATIONAL PRIORITIES IN THE UNITED NATIONS TRUST TERRITORIES

RICHARD I. MILLER

Every new nation or territory must face the fundamental problem. Limited financial resources, very weak or nonexistent traditions of formal education or literacy, little or no industrialization, and rapidly expanding populations are some of the handicaps that force the newly emerging areas to decide upon the wisest utilization of the limited available human and material resources.

A study of educational problems in the United Nations Trust Territories, as exemplified in the Trusteeship Council debates

on educational advancement from 1947 to 1956, reveals that the question of educational priorities was the issue most often debated. (Other prominent issues were racial discrimination in education, language of instruction, public and private education, educational appropriations, and literacy.)

Upon closer examination, three types of priorities are found in the United Nations Trust Territories: priority on primary mass education; priority on secondary selective elite education; and priority on balanced development of education at all levels.

Priority on Primary Mass Education

One "solution"—priority on primary mass education—is being used by the Australian administering authorities in the Trust Territory of New Guinea.

New Guinea is literally jumping from the Stone Age into that of the airplane. In addition to its primitive level of living, high mountains, dense forests, and heavy rain-falls are formidable obstacles to educational development. Up to 1957 no New Guinean student had achieved the equivalent of a secondary school education.¹

The priorities on primary education naturally entail an interest in developing better pedagogical techniques and methods. Since 1950 the curriculum in New Guinea has been moving slowly toward a "rural-bias" emphasis, one which closely relates book learning with the working and living conditions of the country. This approach has basic similarities to methods advocated by G. Stanley Hall and John Dewey, and functions in a similar manner. Take, for example, a unit of study on raising chickens at the experimental Vunamami Area Education Center. The class receives the chickens by air and is immediately faced with the problem of feeding and caring for them. Purchases of feed must be made. The class figures out the cost (arithmetic); each student writes progress reports on the well-being of the chickens (checked for English), and studies something about the uses of poultry (agriculture). Also, the land from which the chickens arrived is studied (geography) and the origin of the breed is traced back to England (history). By the time the chickens are ready for the market, each boy has a booklet on how to raise them, which includes lessons in English, arithmetic, social studies, and agriculture. The Vunamami could be a beacon of hope for the future, but at the present time most schools in New Guinea have poor and meager materials, few facilities, and poorly qualified teachers.

The greatest weakness in primary educa-

tion priorities set up by the Australian administering authority would appear to be the meager efforts toward developing secondary and higher education. Some efforts are being made to expand the teacher training program, but this is judged inadequate by most United Nations delegations, including that of the United States.² The present educational program would appear to perpetuate a self-defeating circle: Higher education develops the social and economic skills that are essential for modernization of the society, but without initial economic and social developments there is little need for higher education. A break-through might be achieved by providing a fair number of academically gifted students with higher education in Australia, until equivalent facilities are established in New Guinea.

The Australian administering authority argues that their priorities suit the Territory at its present stage of development. They are willing to concede that the later developments may alter present priorities, but they contend this is for the future and will be taken care of as the need arises.

Priority on Secondary Selective Education

Another "solution"—priority on secondary elite education—is widely used in Africa. This concept is stated clearly and succinctly in the following passage:

Only a very small proportion of the children entering the primary schools will reach the Universities. This needs to be emphasized, because over-enthusiastic nationalists often speak as if every fit student ought to be provided with the means for university education. This is flatly impossible. . . . Even a comparatively rich country like the United Kingdom cannot afford to provide enough grammar schools and universities to give university education to 40 or 50 per cent of the population. In a comparatively underdeveloped country the proportion must be very small indeed. It sounds highly democratic to offer every young man the chance to become Chief Justice or Permanent Secretary to the Treasury; but it is not for the good of the country to have thousands of briefless barristers and hundreds of thousands of pass graduates who cannot get the sort of administrative jobs which they hoped to obtain. Not

only will they be a nuisance to everybody, but also their ability cannot be used to develop the economy of their country.³

The reluctance of the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, and Australia to expand substantially their respective programs of higher education has been criticized frequently by most delegations on the Trusteeship Council. The Soviet Union has been the most frequent and the most vociferous in its criticisms. In a typical statement, the Soviet representative alleged that:

The greatest and most fundamental defect in the educational system (in the French Cameroons) lay in the fact that the Administering Authority was doing nothing to train the local population to assume responsibility for the country's administration, economic policy, education, and health.⁴

On the other hand, the administering authorities have supported each other on this issue, as well as on other issues. The argument seems to boil down to this: A substantial majority of the Trusteeship Council representatives contend that the facilities for higher education should be expanded considerably in order to provide for greater numbers of skilled workers who will be able to help bring about modernization and industrialization, and of leaders who will be able to step in and carry on when independence is achieved. The administering authorities oppose rapid expansion of higher education, contending that the present economy and development will not support a substantial increase in higher education. Such a policy, they contend, would create an "educated unemployed," a situation that is a problem in India today.⁵

Expansion at the top requires that the Territory has ways and means of capital formation. An underdeveloped country cannot industrialize or develop effective agricultural techniques unless sufficient capital is made available by various means. (Capital is that money which is left over after the primary needs of the society have been satisfied, but in most underdeveloped countries the primary needs of the country

have never been satisfied.) People of India can save about one-hundredth of their per-capita income. Americans can save between one-tenth and one-sixth, or about seventy times the amount that Indian can save. In order to take care of a one per cent increase in population, it has been estimated that two to five per cent of the national income must be available for capital investment.⁶ A Trust Territory with a net annual population increase of one and one-half to two per cent needs at least as much or more capital as it normally saves, merely to cope with the population growth. Therefore, expansion of educational opportunities at the top is a difficult matter for territories with poor natural resources, with little or no history in modernization and industrialization, and with little societal impetus for progress.

On the other hand, the argument is heard in the Trusteeship Council that expansion of education at the top would inject fresh ideas and more efficient methods into the society, thereby creating new jobs. This argument assumes that the raw materials are available for expansion. The virgin timber, black earth, and other natural resources of America have allowed creative ideas a chance to develop.

Almost everyone agrees that a generous increase in appropriations to the Trust Territories would do much to expand their economy. However, this may be asking too much of humanitarianism. France and England have suffered several severe economic crises at home since World War II, and their ability to grant significantly larger appropriations to the Trust Territories is a complicated problem in economics.

Even so, evidence from the proceedings of the Trusteeship Council, as well as statistical reports by UNESCO, indicates that the elite group is now yielding by admitting somewhat greater numbers into its ranks. It is difficult to determine whether this modest expansion is due to the needling effect of the Trusteeship Council representatives, to the unquenchable desire of the indigenous peoples for modernization and

industrialization, to the direct intentions of the administering authorities, or to a combination of these. The trend is evident; the degree and rate of the trend is questionable.

Priority on Balanced Development

A third "solution"—priority on balanced development at all levels—was recommended in a report by the West Indies Committee of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies. The Committee stated that:

We do not share the view that all other stages of education should be perfected before the university is added as a coping stone. Had this course been followed in the older countries their educational development would have been very different and very much slower. We regard an educational system not as a static structure built up in tiers like a pyramid, but as a dynamic system of circulation, in which the university is not simply enriching the fields of higher learning, but is deeply influencing the whole system of education by returning into its service, among others, secondary school and training college teachers, and in many intangible and indirect ways affecting the attitude of the community as a whole towards education and learning.⁷

Let us assume that a balanced system of education can exist. The next question would be: What is meant by this concept? The Administering Authority for the Trust Territory of the French Cameroons contends that its elitist system of education provides the best balance for that Territory, yet a substantial majority of the Trusteeship Council representatives demand from it more education at all levels, and especially more secondary and higher education.

Some countries appear to be achieving a degree of true balance. This conclusion can be drawn from a study of their educational statistics as well as from absence of general criticism levelled at the numbers of pupils in primary, secondary, or higher education.

The newly emerging nation of Nigeria is achieving some degree of such balance in a relatively short span of time. A comparison of educational statistics for the years of 1947 and 1956 indicates that the number of primary pupils has increased 354 per cent

(to 1,907,522 in 1956), the number of secondary pupils has increased 390 per cent (to 39,027 in 1956), and the number of teachers in training has increased 535 per cent (to 19,878 in 1956).⁸ While some question about true balance might be raised in view of the low percentage of primary school pupils who pass on to secondary school—about 2 per cent—this figure will probably be changed considerably in the near future. The fact that Nigeria spent about 45 per cent of its 1956 budget on education, probably too much, indicates the extent of its commitment to education.

Which Priorities Are Best?

It is very difficult to discuss with any degree of finality the problem of best priorities. Each country is different, yet newly emerging nations have a core of common conditions and problems. Using Tanganyika as an example, this largest and most populous of the Trust Territories has a total area that is about equal to Germany, Austria, Italy, and Switzerland combined. However, insufficient water and the tsetse fly cause two-thirds of the land in Tanganyika to lie fallow. Most indigenous inhabitants are peasant agriculturalists who are concerned with growing food for their own consumption. Tanganyika has been called a geographical expression rather than a nation. It consists of one hundred and twenty different tribes who speak eighty languages. Most tribes are self-contained units, isolated from their neighbors by language and other barriers. About 90 per cent of the eight million Africans in Tanganyika are illiterate.

Which priority is best for Tanganyika? Development of newly emerging areas, such as Tanganyika, requires a simultaneous four-pronged approach—political, economic, social (health), and educational. Effective education requires sufficient appropriations; but the availability and effective use of finances require an educated entrepreneurial group; economic development depends on healthy bodies and better techniques gained through education; and social development

requires education, economic betterment, and a conducive political environment. It is within this four-pronged and interrelated approach that educational priorities need to be decided.

Countries such as India, Ghana, and Nigeria are attempting to steer a middle course between the patterns mentioned earlier. They are attempting to achieve quality of education through some social fluidity, and optimum utilization of man power through planning. It is too early to discuss the effectiveness of such programs. But the balanced program embodying best aspects of the education of leaders and mass education seems to hold out most promise.

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¹ United Nations, Trusteeship Council, *Official Records*. (Hereafter cited as ORTC.) Eighteenth Session, 1956. p. 185.

² ORTC, Eighth Session, 1951. p. 211.

³ Sir Ivor Jennings, *The Approach to Self-Government*. Cambridge, At the University Press, 1956. p. 141.

⁴ ORTC, Thirteenth Session, 1954. p. 101.

⁵ "India Perplexed by Jobless Youth," *New York Times*, March 25, 1956.

⁶ Colonial Office, *Report of the West Indies Committee of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies*. 1945, Cmd. 6654, pp. 13-14.

⁷ ORTC, Fifth Session, 1949. Annexes, Agenda item 4 (T/369): "Report of the Committee on Higher Education in Trust Territories," p. 317. Another study has also arrived at a similar conclusion. See: Colonial Office, *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*. Presented to the Parliament by the Secretary of State for the Colonies by command of His Majesty, June 1945, Cmd. 6655, p. 22.

⁸ Federal Educational Department, Nigeria. *Digest of Statistics*, 1956. Lagos, Nigeria, Nigerian Printing and Publishing Co., 1957. p. 5.

POSTWAR REFORM IN ETHIOPIAN EDUCATION

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Ethiopia's postwar reform in education is of a unique character. Ethiopia did not reform her educational system after the war¹ but instead gave birth to a system of education altogether new, if not alien, to the cultural pattern of the nation. To understand the nature of these "reforms," it would be necessary to say a few words about the educational system of the pre-war era, namely, Church education. We shall then focus attention on two types of postwar changes: The expansion of the public school system and the birth of a new program of community education.

Church Education

The Church schools, up to the beginning of the present century, were the sole me-

dium through which the culture of the nation has been preserved and the teachings of the Church propagated. With the opening of the first public school by Emperor Menelik II in 1908, the influence of these schools has been tremendously reduced although by no means terminated. For purposes of clarity one can divide Church education into two levels, the ordinary and the advanced.

The Ordinary Level. The first or the ordinary level is represented by various sorts of practice material used in the Church schools to help the pupil learn the letters and identify each of the two hundred and ten symbols which constitute the Ethiopic alphabet. The child first learns to repeat in an orderly manner each of the thirty letters

of the alphabet and their seven variations; next, he is required to identify the alphabet from a table on which the letters and their variations are placed in a deliberately unorderly fashion.

During the third stage the pupil is given a text taken from the first Epistle of St. John so that he may practice reading. He does so by first counting each letter; then counting the letters at a faster speed; third, chanting the text in a slow and rhythmic fashion; and finally reading it loud and fast. The fourth stage resembles the third, the only difference being in the text since he is now given a text from the Acts of the Apostles. After the child has "mastered" the reading of the Acts of the Apostles, he is promoted to the fifth stage where the material is comprised of reading the Gospels.

The sixth and last stage of the ordinary level is the reading of the Psalms. After the pupil has read the Psalms of David from cover to cover he is ready to "graduate." The "graduation" consists of a feast prepared at the home of the child. The teacher is invited to the feast and presents (often in the form of clothes) are given both to the pupil and to his teacher.

As can be seen from the foregoing description the "curriculum" of the so-called ordinary level emphasizes the role of rote memory. There is hardly any place for understanding or for the cultivation of a creative and imaginative mind; all the texts are in Ge'ez² and hence are meaningless for the child (and at times even for the teacher). The pupil, having completed this stage, is able to read (though not necessarily understand) Ge'ez and Amharic texts and he can also, with some difficulty, write the Ethiopic script.

The Advanced Level. The second or "advanced" level is undertaken by those selected pupils (almost exclusively boys) who want to become "Debteras" (cantors). In the advanced level the child has to choose either the Music School ("Zema Bet"), the School for Church Dance ("Aquaquam"), or the School of Poetry ("Kene Bet"), al-

though he needs to pass some time in the "Zema Bet" in order to succeed either in the "Aquaquam" or "Kene Bet." Each of these schools deserves separate mention.

The instruction in the school of music is determined by the fact that liturgy in the Ethiopian Orthodox Church is almost entirely sung. No musical instruments are used to produce melody although the drum and the sistrum are used to produce rhythm, except during Mass. The most important aim of the music school is thus to teach the Ethiopian musical notation and to have the child memorize the various Church "songs." The three main groups of Church music are "Degua" (music for fasting days), "Zemarie" (music for funeral, baptism, etc.), and "Kedassie" (Mass) with its "Saetat" (music for night services). Of these only the last is sung by the ordained priests; the rest is sung by the unordained cantors.³

For the average churchgoer, one who has no advanced religious education, the music of the Ethiopian Church is at times uninspiring and often meaningless, since the songs are sung in Ge'ez. Those who do understand the songs, however, find them inspiring and absorbing. In general, the music is melodious, (although slightly monotonous) when sung by priests and deacons with good voice. Doubtless, the songs would be infinitely more melodious if the priests (and "Debteras") had some sense of singing in harmony and if the services were shorter than they now are.

The music so far described is what is known in the Ethiopian Orthodox Church as "tere zema" (raw or unpolished music), i.e., music not accompanied by the rhythm of musical instruments. Actually, most of the music in the Church is accompanied either by the clapping of the hands or by the rhythmic sounds of the sistrum and the drum. The cantors dance to the rhythm of such music while elder members of their class sing standing all round them. The dance is either "Zemamie" (slow and majestic), "Mereged" (fast and dignified), or "Woreb" (very fast). The purpose of the

school for church dance is precisely to teach the pupil the art of such church dancing.

One finds it enjoyable and at times even amusing to see a "debtera" sing, dance, and play the drum while elder members of his class stand around encouraging him with smiles and often accompanying the rhythm of his drum by pounding the ground with their prayer sticks. Usually more than one "debtera" is seen dancing in such a setting. If there is any native art at all in the highlands of modern Ethiopia, no doubt Church dancing will take the first place. The dances are pompous, colorful, majestic, and rhythmic, and often are performed with the alertness and elegance of a ballet dancer of the Western world. Let us hope that the future "debteras" will not lose this magnificent cultural trait when they come in contact with other Christian churches which do not possess Church dances.

The school of poetry, unlike the two schools described above, makes great use of the imagination and creative mind of the pupil. The difficulty in composing poems lies in the fact that no rhyme of one series may be repeated in the second, and that the poem must be memorized and sometimes even sung. The quality of a poem is judged not only by its contents but also by its rhythm and meter. The words used must be such that they have more than one meaning, one of the meanings usually carrying sarcasm or satire. The poems somewhat resemble puns in verse.

Many, especially those composed during the religious controversy of the fifteenth century, reflect not only the maturity of the pupils but also their great ability in the use of words and their mastery of the art of rhythm. The poems, even when read in Amharic translation, reflect a rare combination of improvisation and craftsmanship. The Ge'ez language, with its highly intonated words, adds greatly to their color, melody, and splendor.

Nowadays, however, with the growth of nationalism, the poems have lost their artistic qualities and have become somewhat

nationalistic in flavor. The topics are seldom interesting and never stimulating since these poems deal almost invariably with the Fascist brutalities and with the activities and reforms of the Emperor. Moreover, since Amharic is becoming more and more popular, the role and influence of the school of poetry is affected tremendously. It is a source of sorrow to see the decline of the "Zema Bet" without any worthwhile substitute in the Government schools.

Modern Public Education

The most important single "reform" in postwar Ethiopia has been the expansion of a modern system of public education that was started in 1908 by Emperor Menelik II. In 1925, the present Emperor, then Regent, opened the Tafari Makonnen School, a primary school for boys—now enrolling more than one thousand students. There were also a few other smaller schools—almost all of them in the capital. The Emperor had also sent some promising students to Europe and the United States. Perhaps the worst single blow that Italy struck against Ethiopia during the Occupation was the murder of over three-fourths of these promising young people.

After the liberation in 1941, the Ethiopian Government, with almost no money, no teachers, no equipment, and no indigenous teaching material, started anew the difficult task of building a modern educational system. Considering the difficulties the strides made in the last eighteen years are indeed spectacular. In the academic year 1954-55, there were almost 92,000 school children in about 553 public schools, both primary and secondary. In 1954, there were some twelve secondary schools of which two were commercial, one technical, and one a teacher training school. Higher institutions include the University College of Addis Ababa, the College of Engineering, the Imperial College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts, and the Imperial Medical College at Gondar. Also a theological college has just been constructed. These colleges, however, are

important only potentially, since their enrollment in 1955 was somewhat less than 400. The education budget rose from Eth. \$879,413 in 1943-44 to Eth. \$15,000,000 or roughly from 8 per cent to 18 per cent of the national budget.⁴ These figures may not mean a lot to those accustomed to the astronomical figures found in the United States for the corresponding items and years. It might therefore be useful to quote an American who describes Ethiopia's educational efforts and achievements as "... accomplishments which are more spectacular than the re-establishments of the school system in the war-devastated countries of Europe following the Second World War. . . ."⁵

In 1953 the Point 4 technical aid came on the scene in Ethiopia. Point 4 brought in some twenty American educators and, with the indispensable help of foreign-educated Ethiopians, has made modest but rather useful contributions. Among these the most important ones are: the formulation of a ten-year plan for the controlled expansion of Ethiopian education; the introduction of a modern salary scale for teachers and administrators; the increased application of educational measurements in many vital areas; great growth in audio-visual education; and the expansion of the trained personnel and of machinery for school publications.

The most conspicuous limitation of the present educational system is its inadequacy. The school system has to be greatly expanded to qualify as even rudimentary. In a population estimated to be about fifteen million, a little more than a hundred thousand children go to public schools while only five thousand attend private and mission schools. Enrollment figures for the Church schools are not available. However, these cannot amount to more than a hundred thousand. This limitation of opportunity for education to the privileged few has the inevitable effects of accentuating class divisions and perpetuating the "ruling

class" idea. The ruling class in this case is the educated few.

A second shortcoming of the present school system is that the curriculum tends to be overacademic, too far removed from the practical needs of Ethiopia. This is in a sense to be expected since many of the teachers above fourth grade are foreigners and almost all textbooks are from abroad. As a result, school children are at times more familiar with the history of Rome and the life of Abraham Lincoln than with the geography of their immediate community or the history of their own native country.

Furthermore, by attempting to recruit teachers from many nations so that no single foreign nation will have undue influence on the minds of the youth, the Ethiopian schools, in the words of one keen observer, are getting "fragments from the experience and ideals of each without getting the fullest and best influence from any one national tradition . . . [and such] perpetual changes of plans, persons, and nationalities have undoubtedly produced something not far from administrative confusion in education and have discouraged many of those who were honestly trying to do good work for Ethiopia."⁶

A fourth shortcoming of the present school system is the almost inevitable result of overcentralization. If the schools, highly centralized as they are, are employed to bring national unity and political consciousness to the various tribes of the country, care must be taken lest centralization would be abused to inculcate in the minds of the youth fierce nationalism, instead of genuine patriotism, the cult of selfishness instead of respect for national institutions.

The above criticisms do not in any way imply that the present schools are useless. On the contrary, they are indispensable, for these government schools have provided and are providing the indispensable skeleton of educated personnel necessary to help the country carry on the elementary functions of law, order, and progress. But these schools alone cannot help Ethiopia to keep

abreast of the movement of other countries and peoples in the world of the twentieth century. It is with these views in mind that the Ministry of Education has just introduced a second major postwar reform by undertaking the beginning of fundamental or community education.

Community Education

The need for mass education of an entirely different character was first presented to the Long-Term Planning Committee of the Ministry of Education in December 1953. The discussions which followed gave rise to the formulation by the Committee of twenty-eight resolutions for the reorganization and development of education. The Board of Education, the official policy-making body of the Ministry of Education, approved these resolutions in June 1954. The first eleven of these resolutions were aimed at the development of community schools for basic education.

In essence, these eleven resolutions urged that universal fundamental education (using Amharic as the language of instruction, and inculcating those skills which are most useful in *rural* Ethiopia) be extended to adults and in schools normally serving children from seven to twelve years of age. The resolutions urged, further, that special teacher training centers be established and that learning materials in Amharic be created for use in both the training and community schools. It was proposed that the community itself should provide the land for school grounds and should build and maintain the community school plant and teacher homes, following plans provided or approved by the Ministry; and that the Ministry should supply and pay teachers and provide teaching materials.

The Long-Term Planning Committee added thirteen recommendations on March 8, 1955. Of these the ones that have direct relevance to our discussion stated that:—

—the experience of other countries with community education be brought to the use of Ethiopia by a study of the reports of their

work, by bringing their leaders to Ethiopia, and by sending leaders of the Ethiopian program abroad for first-hand observation;

—the teaching staff be of two types, teachers who will work primarily with children, and "leaders" who will work primarily with out-of-school youth and adults;

—trainees (teachers and "leaders") be recruited whenever possible from the immediate community where they are to teach;

—the new community schools be located in the provinces in order to compensate for the present inequality of educational opportunity;

—plans be prepared to recruit seventy trainees, thirty-five teachers and thirty-five "leaders," for a special one-year training course;

—the cooperation of the Ministries of Public Health, Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, etc., and of related programs under those Ministries be sought to integrate the government's efforts for community education and development on a national scale; and

—Long-term plans should include a testing program to screen some graduates of the community schools for admission to intermediate education.⁷

These resolutions, taken together, incorporate the theoretical stage of the creation of fundamental education. Some of the resolutions have already been put into practice and the first training school for such community schools was inaugurated by the Emperor on April 26, 1957, at Debre Berhan, some seventy-five miles north of Addis Ababa.

Since fundamental education in Ethiopia is just starting it would obviously be premature to appraise its success. However, assuming that all that was planned will be properly carried out, fundamental education can be expected to bring about many desirable social changes.

In the first place, fundamental education will have the healthy effect of extending educational opportunity to villagers who so far have been deprived of this opportunity. And by so doing it will counteract the idea of the "privileged few" that is being accentuated by the public schools. This will have tremendous social consequences not all of which may be entirely desired. The Ethiopian social stratification resembles vaguely that of feudal Europe in the Middle

ages. Recently, however, the feudal lords of Ethiopia are being gradually replaced by the educated few. When education is extended to every citizen through the community schools, the basis of social stratification is likely to be shaken and it is now extremely difficult to predict the consequences.

Second, the new community schools will counteract the overacademic nature of the country's educational system. The public schools are of the academic type (something like the Grammar Schools of England), and have tended to produce the "theoretical" type of man rather than the "practical," if, indeed, such classification of human beings is permissible. The community schools by emphasizing carpentry, farming (leatherwork, etc.), will have the healthy effect of helping to break the age-old tradition of despising men who work with their hands.

Third, the new community schools will counteract some of the detrimental effects of overcentralization. Since the villagers themselves will furnish the school ground and build the school plants, and moreover since the teaching staff will be recruited from the immediate community, the community schools will be less exposed (although by no means immune) to the danger of being dominated by the central government. No doubt there is a need for centralized government in Ethiopia to achieve social and political unity among the widely different parts of the country. However, centralization must be conceived as a means and not as an end in itself. Whenever decentralization is feasible (as in the case of the community schools), the people must avail themselves of that opportunity.

Fourth, the new effort of the Ministry of Education to secure the cooperation of the various government agencies in supporting its program of community education, may, consciously or unconsciously, bring about an *integrated plan* for the economic and industrial development of the country. So far Ethiopia has been without any long-

range plans for economic development. When the various government agencies come together to combine their efforts for community development, it is more than likely that a long-term plan for economic and industrial development will materialize.

Conclusion

A national system of education is not only a reflection of the social and political philosophy of the nation but also a reflection of the nation's deliberate efforts to undergo gradual social and political changes. This is especially true in the case of Ethiopia.

Needless to say, the schools in Ethiopia must serve the needs of the people and the educational system must be uniquely their own. However, Ethiopia should also attempt to incorporate into its system sound ideas found in the educational systems of other countries. Ethiopians have, no doubt, a lot to learn from the West; nevertheless, they should not become mere imitators. They should borrow from the West only those aspects of educational practice which are useful to the people and consistent with their social customs. "It is obvious," writes Kandel, "that a national system of education cannot be established by borrowing a piece from one country, another from another country, and so on. . . ."⁸ This is probably the greatest challenge for the Ethiopians since they have tried to establish a national system of education "by picking off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another." As a result not only do the schools tend to lose their identity but they no longer seem even to know "whence they came and whither they are going."

If the schools are to preserve their identity, the Ethiopian national system of education must be both a reflection of the past and a guide to the future. The educational system must in the first place aid in the transmission of the nation's cultural heritage from one generation to the next and, in addition, it must train capable persons who have the ability to interpret, enrich, and

adapt that heritage to new needs and to changing conditions as they may arise. These are the two universal objectives of education which W. E. Hocking describes as "education of type and education for growth beyond the type."⁹ Any system of education in Ethiopia that fails to satisfy these demands is bound to make the country a lost nation—a nation living in darkness whom the world will forget and ignore.

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¹ The war referred to in this article is not the Second World War but the Italo-Ethiopian conflict of 1935-36.

² Ge'ez is the classical language of the country, now used only in the Ethiopian Orthodox Church.

³ For a much more detailed account of the music school, the reader is referred to Sylvia

E. Pankhurst, *Ethiopia—A Cultural History*, Middlesex, England: Lallibela Printing Press, 1955 pp. 234-266.

⁴ Source of figures: Education Yearbook, Imperial Ethiopian Ministry of Education, 1955. Recently, there has been a reduction in the relative amount of funds appropriated for education.

⁵ Dr. William L. Wrinkle, Head of the Point 4 Education Advisory Staff, in his annual report to the Ministry of Education in 1955.

⁶ Margery Perham, *The Government of Ethiopia*, London: Fabber & Fabber Ltd., 1948, pp. 257 ff. This book, now somewhat outdated, is one of the most objective and soberly written books on Ethiopia.

⁷ Bair, Frederick H. *The Role of Schools in the Improvement of Community Life*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin. No. 9. Washington, 1956, pp. 266-267.

⁸ I. L. Kandel, *The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955, p. 10.

⁹ Quoted in Kandel, *op. cit.*, pp. 22-23.

EDMUND KING'S "OTHER SCHOOLS AND OURS"

FREDERIC LILGE

Since textbooks and surveys in comparative education have lately become a fairly common commodity, the question that arises in one's mind on opening yet another is whether the author would not have done better to invest his time in the study of some special problem or more limited area. This incipient criticism is silenced by at least the

greater part of this book. Dr. King, of King's College, University of London, is very far from offering a cut-and-dried survey. In this, his book differs from the others. He draws six educational profiles of Denmark, France, England, the United States, the Soviet Union, and India, and these profiles succeed in conveying the distinguishing characteristics of each of the national systems. The reader is not choked with information, but is shown the moral assumptions and distinctive achievements as well as the

¹ Edmund J. King, *Other Schools and Ours*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1958. xiii + 234 pages, price \$3.00.

current problems of these systems. A good deal of information is in fact presented, but this is done casually—English writers are better at this than Americans—and for purposes of illustration rather than of documentation. The happy result is that the narrative is kept flowing and the reader's interests is sustained.

The chief merit of this book, however, is not its pleasantly informal style but its good sense and balanced judgment. These qualities are particularly in evidence in the chapters on Great Britain and the United States. Dr. King is not afraid of venturing critical opinions as he compares the general achievements of different educational practices, and he thereby holds together and gives shape to his synoptic accounts. One may differ with some of his evaluations. But American college students who, through no fault of their own, commonly think of education as absorption of information, need to rub against a writer who knows his own mind and who may stimulate them to know theirs. These qualities make this book a good text for students in a first course on comparative education.

Yet it is not without flaws. The portrayal of national traits, always a risky undertaking, does not escape the stereotype, and in such passages the writing sometimes becomes banal. The chapter on France, particularly, suffers from these defects. Frenchmen are individualists, French education is Cartesian, French teachers are "priests of the intellect," Frenchmen enjoy "vivacious lives," and "a French girl in Piccadilly or Fifth Avenue is French to her elegant fingertips." This reads a little like the alluring ads by *Air France*.

As a rule, no sources are given for the figures cited in the text, with one or two odd exceptions. On page 166, for example, *US News and World Report* is mentioned as a source (the reference is to travel notes by Homer and Norton Dodge, who also provided evidence for Alexander Korol's *Soviet Education for Science and Technology*, page 119) even though statistical

sources on Soviet education are available. There are other minor imperfections in the chapter on Russia. The ages of membership in Pioneers and Komsomol youth organizations are not ten to fifteen and fifteen to twenty-three (page 158), but nine to thirteen and fourteen to twenty-six, if we are to believe the *Great Soviet Encyclopedia*. The definition of polytechnical education on page 167 is inadequate, and what, by the way, is a "semi-voluntary" migration (page 170)? The last chapter, which is a general review of the book, contains some very facile statements about difficult historical questions which would have been better left untouched. It is doubtful whether Marx ever wrote of a "bloody" overthrow of authority (page 210), and to name him in the same breath with Hitler and his atrocities shows a lack of discrimination.

A broader question concerns the selection of the contents of this book. Dr. King says he chose these six countries because they were good case studies. Each presented certain problems in their clearest and most radical form. Denmark, for example, is chosen because it is a small country that has to make the most of its meager resources, and India, at the other end of the scale, because it illustrates a host of problems such as population growth, health, food supply, and a linguistic babel, all of which clamor for the educator's attention. In these and in his other case studies the author is dealing with significant matters. Yet equally significant and urgent problems are presented by countries not included in his survey: by Germany and Japan, for example, whose young people are skeptical and spiritually bereft of values and traditions once valid but now questioned in the light of recent national history; by Communist China, about whose extraordinary economic transformation Americans are kept ignorant by their own government; by the Arab countries and their strident nationalism; or by the so-called satellite countries of Eastern Europe, of which Poland presents the most interesting case of conflicting tendencies. Obviously,

no one writer can encompass the globe. But would it not have been simpler to say that one wrote about those countries he knew something of?

Finally, I would raise a question which is prompted in part by this book and in part by the self-questioning articles which have lately appeared in this journal on whether comparative education is or can become a "discipline." The question concerns methods of inquiry. Dr. King uses terms such as "problems" and "case studies" with reference to whole societies and their educational systems. This terminology suggests the use of the scientific method, but I doubt whether he has come anywhere near it. All the countries he treats present more than one problem, and for the purpose of a rational, let alone a scientific, inquiry, these would have to be defined more sharply and dealt with separately if there is to be any promise of a result or conclusion. It is of course true to say, in a loose sort of sense, that a given country is faced with certain problems for the solution of which it turns to its schools. If we take this bird's-eye view of the matter, which for an introduction, I repeat, is a useful thing to do, we could perhaps describe what we see in the broader terms of "challenge and response," employed by Toynbee in his historical overviews of whole civilizations, in order to reserve the term "problem" for more precise and limited inquiries. Certainly educational institutions are involved in social changes and in social crises. But we cannot find out precisely in which way and to what extent if we proceed on the assumption that these institutions make concerted national efforts toward the solution of whatever problems face them. Unless I am mistaken, such an assumption seemed to me implicit in Dr.

King's book. Only centrally controlled and planned societies may issue such appeals or, as the Soviets say, set their teachers and schools "tasks," and even here the response is far from efficient and prompt. A recent proof of this is contained in the four pages of *Pravda* of November 16, 1958, where the coming reorganization of the Soviet school system is justified as necessary to end the long-standing separation between school and life—this after forty years of socialism!

It would seem, therefore, that if writers in the field of comparative education are to achieve anything that deserves to be called research, they will have to reduce the diffuseness, the generality, and the scope of their publications. This does not mean that they should reduce the scope of their intellectual interests. On the contrary, these should become as wide as a person can make them by being in touch, for example, with the historians, the sociologists, and the philosophers of the institution in which he teaches. The kind of study of which we need more would be modest and limited in scale, but thorough and penetrating; and if the writer is widely read in the disciplines referred to, or in others that are relevant to his particular educational interest, his study is bound to be illuminating and significant. To bring a number of broad intellectual interests to bear on a detailed technical study so as to make clear its place in a larger context of meaning is difficult, and this is why comparative education, if pursued this way, is a difficult subject. But in principle it is no more difficult than any scholarly writing that attempts more than to present accumulated information because the author feels that the unity of knowledge and the unity of the human spirit have a claim upon him.

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